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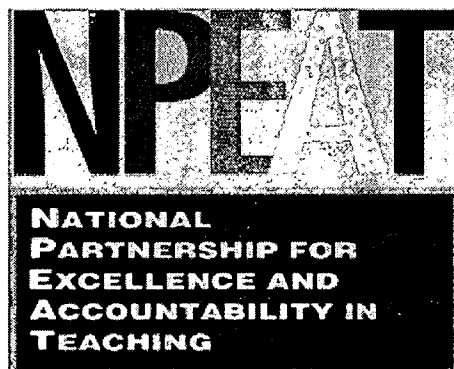
This report examines what has been learned from the efforts of the Urban Network to Improve Teacher Education (UNITE) efforts to inform state policy. UNITE originated in 1993 with nine urban partnerships between urban schools and colleges of education and their urban K-12 counterparts. Their mission is strengthening the recruitment, preparation, and retention of urban teachers. UNITE's primary change strategy is to have joint leadership teams from these partnership sites collaborate regularly, refining and extending their leadership abilities and sharing progress and problems in local reform efforts. An expanded cycle of 31 urban partnerships was initiated in 1998. This report highlights nine recommendations which relate to: enabling new, more powerful urban K-16 partnership governance structures; implementing strategies to recruit more competent and diverse teachers; strengthening urban teacher education as an all-university endeavor; achieving fundamental improvements in professional programs for teachers in urban schools; socializing teachers to collaborate; extending urban teacher preparation seamlessly into the first teaching year; addressing both ends of the teacher education continuum simultaneously; developing materials and procedures for urban students to learn cooperatively; helping urban parents help their children learn; and implementing state-level integrated K-16 policy boards. Two appendixes present UNITE member partnerships and UNITE case study sites. (Contains 43 references.) (SM)

A Review of Challenges and Innovations in the Preparation of Teachers for Urban Contexts

Implications for State Policy

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ED 449 137



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Table of Contents

Introduction.....	2
The Urban Context.....	4
Enabling New and More Powerful K-16 Partnership Governance Structures in Urban Settings.....	10
Recommendation 1.....	12
Implementing Strategies to Recruit Both a More Competent and More Diverse Teaching Force.....	13
Recommendation 2.....	16
Strengthening Urban Teacher Education as an All-University Endeavor.....	16
Recommendation 3.....	20
Achieving Fundamental Improvements in Professional Programs Targeted for Teachers in Urban Schools	21
Urban Mission Statements.....	24
Socializing Teachers to Work Together.....	26

The Essentiality of Thoughtful, Structured Experiences in Urban Communities.....	28
Recommendation 4.....	32
Extending Urban Teacher Preparation in a Seamless Manner into the First Year(s) of Teaching.....	32
Recommendation 5.....	39
Addressing Both Ends of the Teacher Education Continuum Simultaneously.....	41
Recommendation 6.....	48
Developing Materials and Procedures for Urban Students to Learn With and From One Another.....	48
Recommendation 7.....	51
Helping Urban Parents Help Their Youngster Learn.....	52
Recommendation 8.....	53
Putting In Place Integrated K-16 Policy Boards at the State Level.....	55
Recommendation 9.....	57
References.....	58
Appendix A.....	62
Appendix B.....	63

Introduction

This report draws on what has been learned from reform endeavors undertaken in the Urban Network to Improve Teacher Education (UNITE) to inform state policy. The author of this report is the director of UNITE which originated in 1993 with nine urban partnerships between schools and colleges of education located in large school districts and their urban K-12 counterparts. Their mutual mission remains strengthening the recruitment, preparation and retention of teachers in *urban* contexts. The primary change strategy in UNITE has been to have joint leadership teams from these partnership sites come together on a regular basis. In these institutes they refine and extend their leadership abilities and also share on a continuing basis progress and problems in their local reform agenda.

A second, expanded cycle of 31 urban partnerships was initiated in 1998 (see Appendix A) as an urban network within the larger, national, reform-oriented confederation: The Holmes Partnership. The Holmes Partnership, as UNITE, focuses upon the development and maintenance of partnerships as teacher preparation is viewed necessarily as a partnership endeavor.

In the first cycle of UNITE, The Ohio State University/Columbus Public Schools served as the hub for the network and in the second cycle a partnership structure engaging several key agencies in Milwaukee called The Milwaukee Academy took on this responsibility. This writer moved from The Ohio State University to the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee (UWM) and hence the

headquarters or hub for UNITE moved as well. A small number of UNITE sites are currently engaged in case studies of their efforts, supported in part by the National Partnership for Excellence and Accountability In Teaching (NPEAT), funded by the Office of Education Research and Improvement (OERI), U. S. Department of Education. These five sites are listed in Appendix B. The case studies of urban teacher preparation are still in their early stages. Given the recent termination of funding for NPEAT, the nature and scope of these case studies understandably are in a process of redesign and renegotiation. Rather than provide a progress report on the cases, this author was asked to share more generally what has been learned about efforts to improve urban teacher preparation and the implications of this for state policy. Thus, the author draws from not only the case study sites but the entire UNITE network and particularly how innovations have been integrated into the hub sites, first at Columbus and now at Milwaukee.

Several key assumptions should be shared at the outset as a backdrop for the report. First, teacher preparation needs to be driven by a bolder and more ambitious conception of teaching and learning than typically is witnessed at all levels of education. Second, teacher preparation needs to intersect with and impact in more sustaining, interactive ways the organization and culture of K-12 schools. Third, teacher preparation should not be uncoupled from coordinated efforts to recruit and retain teachers. Fourth, teacher preparation will not be transformed by curricular adaptations in the “lifespace” of the “professional” program. Major improvements in teacher preparation especially for *urban* contexts, will not occur unless major changes are made in instruction as well as curriculum *across the university* and unless this preparation is continued in an aligned manner into the *first year(s) of teaching*. Fifth, teacher education is severely constrained by the lack of attention to creating new roles and new responsibilities for teachers working in concert with one another. As outstanding, veteran teachers take on more extended and more complex roles in helping novice teachers learn, they should also acquire the capacity to serve as catalysts for school renewal as well – *if* they are prepared for these new leadership roles. Thus, teacher education, conducted in an integrative fashion, can and should address both ends of the teacher education continuum simultaneously. It can promote paraprofessionals into licensed teaching positions while preparing veteran teachers for leadership roles. Sixth, the reciprocal, blended nature of teaching and learning demands more attention to

students' and parents' specific roles and responsibilities as continuing partners in education. Virtually no attention however is given to this in teacher preparation. Seventh, and perhaps most critically, much bolder partnerships are needed to achieve this more ambitious view of teacher education. These partnerships need to be *interinstitutional* in nature and incorporate key leaders not just from the educational sector but from across diverse urban communities. Thus, in this report various literatures and first-hand experiences in UNITE partnership sites are drawn upon to illustrate a bold vision of teacher preparation to prepare teachers for the challenges of urban teaching – a form of teacher preparation that simply is not the same as teacher preparation in general.

The Urban Context

Before addressing the distinctive nature of teacher preparation for urban contexts, the distinctive nature of urban contexts is briefly addressed. Two of the more dramatic influences on urban schools are the continually changing social demography and ideology characterizing our cities. The United States increasingly is a society of many cultures and many languages. In many urban communities what have been historically distinct cultures (European, Hispanic, African American, Asian) need now not to just coexist but to flourish together. However, there is no easy integrationist strategy. Neither is there a disposition by many to engage with one another more fully across cultural and racial lines or economic strata.

A third pervasive condition in many urban contexts is the number of families and particularly children who live on the edges of poverty. Unfortunately, addressing the needs of children of diverse cultures often merges with the cataloging of the needs of children in poverty. Rentel and Dittmer (1999) speak to the impact of poverty—known by most of us only from a distance—and especially the effects of these economic conditions on youth:

More than 300,000 school-age children are homeless at any given time in the United States (Linehan, 1992). Roughly four million children have been exposed to dangerous levels of lead, and health statistics indicate that some 300,000 newborns have been exposed pre-natally to drugs including dangerous levels of alcohol (Burgess & Streisguth, 1992; Griffith, 1992; Needleman, 1992). Many if not most of these children have joined a growing underclass of poor, often homeless, and increasingly rootless adults. As juveniles, evidence suggests that many of them will be noncompliant, aggressive, anti-social, and unable to communicate or to understand effectively. Contrary to media stereotypes, they are distributed throughout the population, not just concentrated in minority communities, although they are disproportionately represented among the *poor* [emphasis mine] (p. 8).

Leadership teams comprised of university-based teacher educators and K-12 teachers in urban settings in over 30 partnerships in the United States comprise the Urban Network to Improve Teacher Education (UNITE). This writer has directed this network since 1993 and after the first 3-year cycle these leadership teams summarized characteristics that are unfortunately commonplace among many youngsters who are members of the growing underclass in many of these urban settings. This author (1996) reported them as follows:

- Low, distorted academic expectations.
- Nominal understanding of the ramifications of not acquiring a good education and minimal vocational aspirations.
- Minimal adult supervision; at times lacking "any significant other" adult relationships.
- Cultural dissonance with the middle class and cultural isolation from other cultures.
- Early, strong peer socialization; aspects of which are negative.
- Early, discernible rites of passage, at times counterproductive to patterns of child and adolescent development.
- Forms of social, psychological, physical deprivation as derivatives of extreme poverty.
- Common exposure to drugs and violence.
- Geographic settings that are relatively small in size but densely populated, contained, and strongly bounded, resulting in high degrees of territorial behavior (p. 19)

These urban educators participating in UNITE have drawn from several literatures, especially the social sciences, to gain insight into how teachers might be better prepared for diverse, urban contexts. . To understand the urban context in all of its complexity, both its richness—of individuals particularly—and its problems, calls for increasing firsthand experience as well as scholarly perspectives. In the same report a UNITE member, who was a professor at Ohio State, poignantly summarized for me her voluntary return to teaching two days a week in an inner-city school as follows:

It takes an enormous reframing of mind and experience to resist the tendency to blame the victims, not to think the problems are in the child and the environment, and not to

feel hopeless about the children's futures. And yet this reframing is necessary to restructuring assumptions and expectations. How do you do this when the classroom feels like it might explode at any minute? How does one embrace risk taking when at any moment children may lash out at each other or you, with little provocation? I did not realize how powerful the tendency would be to simplify and structure things in order to keep control. I did not expect to feel so strongly the range of threats that these children present. At the same time, I was continually in awe of their resilience. Regardless of the pain or struggles they may have in other parts of their lives, they had times of joy and laughter, interest in new ideas, the desire to be creative and a responsiveness to praise and warmth. My experience in this classroom has heightened my sensitivity to issues of urban education and made my readings, research, and teaching in this area better grounded in the realities of an urban classroom. (1996, p. 20)

In addressing conditions attached to the poverty-ridden underclass in urban contexts

Haddaway (1996) identified the following common characteristics:

1. the physical and structural properties of neighborhoods,
2. identifiable variations in family structure,
3. both historical and contemporary racism,
4. policies and practices that sustain a weak attachment to labor markets,
5. expanding power and responsibilities of youth subcultures outside of school, and
6. urban school districts that tend to be highly bureaucratic and political organizations and individual schools that are often lacking in facilities and resources as well as stable faculty and student populations.

There are indeed particular challenges to *teaching* in urban schools. In 1996 the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (NCTAF) published a blue ribbon report pointing to new directions for the reform of teacher education. The report, entitled *What Matters Most: Teaching for America's Future*, stated the following at the outset however:

After a decade of reform, we have finally learned in hindsight what should have been clear from the start: Most schools and teachers cannot produce the kind of learning demanded by the new reforms, not because they do not want to, but because they do not know how, and the systems in which they work do not support them in doing so (p. 5).

The recommendations put forth in this paper speak to how teachers in urban schools can acquire the knowledge and abilities to produce the type of learning needed and at the same time teach in more supportive settings. If more ambitious and bolder forms of teaching and learning are to occur on a broad scale, then bolder and more ambitious forms of teacher preparation will need to be put in

place. Just what type of teaching and learning is suggested by these new reforms? Sears and Hersh (1999) capture many aspects of this in what they term Contextual Teaching and Learning (CT&L):

Contextual teaching is teaching that enables learning in which pupils employ their academic understandings and abilities in a variety of in- and out-of-school contexts to solve simulated or real-world problems, both alone and in various dyad and group structures. Activities in which teachers use contextual teaching strategies help students make connections with their roles and responsibilities as family members, citizens, students, and workers. Learning through and in these kinds of activities is commonly characterized as problem based, self-regulated, occurring in a variety of contexts including the community and work sites, involving teams or learning groups, and responsive to a host of diverse learner needs and interests. Further, contextual teaching and learning emphasizes higher-level thinking; knowledge transfer; and collection, analysis, and synthesis of information and data from multiple sources and viewpoints. CT&L includes authentic assessment that is derived from multiple sources and is ongoing and blended with instruction (pp. 4-5).

This ambitious form of teaching and learning has particular implications for the urban context as learning in academic settings is very much a social and community endeavor powerfully mediated by language and culture. Further while learning is often independent and competitive in nature, there are other times when members of a classroom or "learning community" understand what responsibility they have not only for their own learning but their responsibility for assisting their peers in their learning as well. This ambitious goal of youngsters cooperating around difficult challenges in school reflects the kind of society we desire outside of schools wherein individuals work and play together in productive and harmonious fashion. Public schools and classroom settings in this democratic society are for promoting cognitive growth and marketable skills, but they also have a responsibility for developing good citizens.

Although all classrooms are diverse, classrooms that are highly diverse in racial and cultural terms are *value added* in terms of the opportunity for acquiring multiple perspectives and understandings from one another. The United States remains a stratified society where prejudice and bias are commonplace. Prejudice has to do with how much wealth we have, whether we look good, talk right, are smart, or too smart, and whether we are part of "the group." Prejudice is particularly devastating when it thwarts access and equal opportunity and reinforces economic deprivation and historical forms of racism. Combating such racism and prejudices needs to be endemic to teaching and learning at every level. As this author wrote recently:

In our diverse democratic society we have not capitalized nearly as well as we should have and can on the school and classroom as a great storehouse for social as well as

cognitive learning. If schools are serious about developing life-long learners, who know *how* to learn, then students need structured opportunities to learn how to study and to learn *from* as well as with one another. This point cannot be underscored strongly enough. Students are in powerful social settings in school, and far too many reform initiatives call for improved student achievement without sufficient attention to how youngsters actually learn *together*, as well as alone, in a deep conceptual manner. In too many instances students find that their race, culture, or social station works against them. (1999, pp. 21-22)

Again, this ambitious view of teaching and learning demands an ambitious form of teacher preparation as outlined in this paper. Recommendations for policy consideration at the state level are put forward in nine interrelated categories in an expanded view of teacher education as follows:

1. Enabling new and more powerful K-16 partnership governance structures in urban settings.
2. Implementing strategies to recruit both a more competent and more diverse teaching force to urban schools.
3. Strengthening urban teacher education as an all-university endeavor.
4. Achieving fundamental improvements in professional programs targeted for teachers in urban schools.
5. Extending urban teacher preparation in a seamless manner into the first year(s) of teaching.
6. Addressing both ends of the teacher education continuum simultaneously.
7. Developing materials and procedures for urban students to learn with and from one another.
8. Helping urban parents help their youngsters learn.
9. Putting in place integrated K-16 policy boards at the state level.

From this perspective improving the preparation of teachers for challenging urban setting will call for more than altering the nature of teacher preparation *programs*, especially as they are currently construed within a relatively abbreviated professional "life space." Coordinated action across K-16 educational stakeholders is needed in order to achieve significant and lasting reform. Both K-12 school reform and teacher preparation reform have been hampered in the past by an emphasis on rather singular strategies that did not require the college and university sector to work closely with those in the K-12 sector. Too often these two parties have acted independently and at times in opposition to one another in their reform initiatives. Needed changes in the culture and organization of schools have not been linked to needed changes in initial teacher preparation.

Enabling New and More Powerful K-16 Partnership Governance Structures in Urban Settings

In the Milwaukee partnership, which serves as the hub for UNITE, a K-16 governance structure was recently put in place, referred to as The Milwaukee Academy. Those on this

governance body meet on a regular basis to address issues of teacher quality from preservice teacher education through continuing professional development. The members of this academy include the superintendent of the Milwaukee Public Schools (MPS), the chief executive officer of the teachers' union, the president of the school board, the president of the Greater Milwaukee Chamber of Commerce, the chief executive officer of the Private Industry Council, the president of the Milwaukee Area Technical College (MATC), the chancellor of the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee (UWM), and the deans of the School of Education and Arts and Science at UWM. Parents from the community at large are also represented. This body meets on a regular basis with the leadership rotated between the chancellor of the university, the superintendent of schools, and the executive director of the teachers' union. Their mission is to work together to improve the quality of teaching with teacher education viewed as the central means for doing so.

A major goal is to put more teachers of color into MPS classrooms. At present the percentage of children of color in the Milwaukee schools is over 82 percent and the percentage of teachers of color is only 29 percent. One strategy for accomplishing this is developing a career lattice for the over 2,000 aides and paraprofessionals who assist licensed teachers in a variety of ways within the Milwaukee Public Schools. A large percentage of these individuals are African American and they are often single mothers who live in their school's immediate neighborhood. Recruiting the most able of these paraprofessionals into a teaching career calls for a more viable "pipeline" so that these paraprofessionals can complete a college education, gain a teaching license and teach in their own community.

This is no small challenge. Many of these paraprofessionals have but limited means to continue their education and to access needed childcare. In order to develop this pipeline, coordinated action will be called for, including the articulation of a reasonable curriculum between the area technical college where many of these paraprofessionals will begin their work toward teacher licensure, and the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee where they will continue it. Beyond that negotiations will be necessary between the school board and the teachers' union to find ways to provide for their continued education and for a variety of supervised clinical experiences that blend with but are still distinctive from their duties as paraprofessionals. There are a number of legal and

economic issues attached to this. Both the Chamber of Commerce and the Private Industry Council are involved to help coalesce scholarships and fellowships for the paraprofessionals during the course of their teacher education studies. The curriculum that is designed for these nontraditional students involves changes beyond the school of education and this is but one of several reasons why both the dean of education and dean of liberal studies are involved and the chancellor of the university herself assumes a major leadership role in teacher preparation. Once they have completed their licensure requirements, these individuals need assurance of a position in the district and further support in their first full year. There are major implications here for the board of education and the teachers' union.

Other examples of the need for coordinated action across the several parties in the partnership could be provided, such as tightening the relationships between curricular standards and proficiency tests in the Milwaukee Public Schools and the nature of teacher preparation at UWM and MATC. Perhaps what is most central and so often lacking in "partnerships" designed to improve the preparation of teachers is an alignment and intersection between how teachers are prepared initially and how schools are organized for success. For example, if a growing empirical base suggests that many students are better served when they remain with teams of teachers over a number of years around fewer but deeper ideas (Darling-Hammond, 1994), what does this suggest for how teachers should be prepared? Shouldn't they be prepared to operate on teams with some reasonable division of labor and an understanding that they will be collectively responsible for teaching the same youngsters over a protracted period of time?

Recommendation 1

Thus, the first recommendation relative to improving the preparation of teachers for *urban* schools is that states consider enabling policies and incentives to institute governance structures such as The Milwaukee Academy for their urban settings. Venture capital would be provided to support these governance structures if *interinstitutional* coordination involving *key leaders on a sustained basis*, such as illustrated in The Milwaukee Academy were put in place. The emphasis would be on the involvement of universities as a whole who work with urban districts in a continuing manner and not just schools and colleges of education. The president or chancellor of the university as well as the superintendent of schools and union leader would have to be involved. Further, to be eligible for

venture capital from the state, these new partnership arrangements would have to jointly design a plan that examines how they would work together to relate key educational endeavors more closely together. These would include the relationship between the nature of school reform and changing curriculum standards in K-12 schools with the initial preparation of teachers; the relationship between initial preparation and its needed extension into the critical, first years of teaching; the relationship between the education provided teachers in these formative entry years and the education of those who will provide support to those novices. Especially critical would be the different but complementary roles and responsibilities various parties will play in the recruitment, education, support, and retention of more *minorities* into teaching in *urban* schools; this concern is briefly addressed next.

Implementing Strategies to Recruit Both a More Competent and More Diverse Teaching Force

It has been estimated that over a quarter of a million new teachers will be needed over the next five years (Riley, 1998). The problem of recruiting and preparing competent teachers for *urban* contexts is further exacerbated since prospective teachers generally don't prefer to teach there and because of the acute shortage of teachers in specific areas. The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE), Research About Teacher Education (RATE) studies over several years showed that only 1 in 8 teachers had as their first preference teaching in a highly diverse, urban setting. A U.S. Department of Education School and Staffing Survey (1994) further revealed that the number of teachers who are teaching out of their field is considerably exacerbated in high-poverty schools; that is, schools where more than 40 percent of the students are eligible for free or reduced lunch. For example, almost one in five high-poverty schools have teachers of English who are not qualified to teach this subject. This is the case in one in four teachers in the area of mathematics, an even higher percentage in biology, and an incredible 71 percent in physics. This is to say nothing of the considerable shortages of teachers in the areas of bilingual education, special education, and English as a second language (ESL). Beyond this, there is the unfortunate, stark contrast in demography between teachers and students in urban contexts. Zimpher (1989), a member of the RATE research team, portrayed prospective teachers generally as:

The typical graduate of the American education school is female, is of Anglo descent, is about 21 years of age, speaks only English, travels less than 100 miles to attend

college, was raised in a small town or suburban or rural setting, and expects to teach in a school whose demographics are similar to her own. In fact this typical prospective teacher does not seek to teach students out of the mainstream, or to serve in a school of innovative architecture or one organized around anything other than a traditional curriculum or facility. (p. 51)

There are a host of strategies that are employed to recruit teachers into teacher education and prepare and dispose them to teach in urban contexts, none with great success. This writer suggests focusing on a strategy that will demand a strong K-16 infrastructure and a partnership working together to recruit more minority youth especially into teaching. Recruitment activities and selection procedures cannot be limited to inter- and intrainstitutional competition for college-bound minorities which too often characterize the present situation.

A pipeline strategy would rather focus on talented youngsters in middle schools who indicate a potential interest in teaching some day. They would be recruited to a teaching high school or "academy" or perhaps better a "school within their local high school" which would be staffed by outstanding teacher role models. In such settings those students with an interest in teaching would have several options that would allow them to see whether teaching might appeal to them and fit with their abilities and dispositions over time. First, they would be assigned to a "mentor" teacher. In these specially designated "teaching" schools they would get continuing encouragement from powerful role models. They would pursue, along with other potential teacher candidates some modest coursework concentrated on education and youth. They would serve in a variety of teacher aide capacities. They would engage in cross-age tutoring with elementary-age youngsters and would work in an instructional capacity with other youth groups. They would belong to a future teachers' club and have a network of peers with similar interests to support them. Further in strong partnerships they would also have opportunities to interact with both faculty and preservice teachers from urban schools and colleges of teacher education.

This early intervention strategy obviously calls for financial incentives as well to make pursuing a teaching degree possible for many urban students with limited resources. Financial assistance is needed in the form of corporate sponsorships, fellowships and scholarships, loan-forgiveness programs, and work-study support. Also the teaching profession, both teachers and teacher educators, must become more *personally* engaged with recruiting individuals from an

underrepresented population to become tomorrow's teachers.

Such teaching academies or teaching schools within a school again call for strong interinstitutional cooperation in order for them to work. For example in Columbus, Ohio middle school students are recruited to Northland High School, which is designated as an Academy because of its emphasis on assisting students who have an interest in teaching as a possible career. The emphasis is on recruiting *minority* students from middle schools for this "magnet" school. If they remain interested in teaching and have a sufficient academic record upon graduating from Northland Academy they can enroll at The Ohio State University. The school of education has made a commitment in partnership with others to find scholarship support for these students as they pursue a teaching license. Upon successful completion of their teacher education program they are guaranteed a position in Columbus, an *urban* school district. At this point the teachers' union is committed to providing further support for them in its Peer Assistance and Review program (PAR) during their first year of teaching. As can be seen from this example all key organizations concerned with teacher quality need to work together to ensure that a competent and diverse teaching force exists in their urban school district.

Recommendation 2

Thus, the second major recommendation for policy makers at the state level is that modest venture capital for the development of urban teaching academies be considered. Again there would have to be a commitment from all major parties concerned with teacher quality in the urban district to assume responsibilities for supporting these prospective students through high school, into and through college, and throughout their first formative years of teaching in order to qualify for state support.

Strengthening Urban Teacher Education as an All-University Endeavor

When the role of the larger university in improving the education of teachers is discussed, the emphasis is commonly on improving the content preparation of teachers (Rennert-Ariev and Valli, 1998). The content problem is exacerbated in the situation of elementary teachers who in prevalent school organizations are often asked to teach a fairly wide range of subject matter. Thankfully initiatives to support the content preparation of teachers are growing, including the recent proposals

funded by the federal government under Title II of the Higher Education Act. There are other central ways, however, in which the larger university should be engaged in the preparation of teachers and particularly the preparation of teachers for *urban* contexts. Universities in urban settings particularly could better prepare all of their students and especially prospective teachers to fully understand the nature of urban communities and of the multiple cultures typically found within those communities. In this regard this author (Howey, 1998) recently submitted a proposal to his colleagues at the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee to consider ways in which to prepare all students with a fuller understanding of the multiple cultures in an urban community and to manifest a curriculum distinctive to an urban university. The proposal called for the development of a core set of courses or general education requirements, identified as Cultures and Communities. Support has subsequently been forthcoming for the proposal to design and implement a sequence of interdisciplinary, team-taught courses for any undergraduate UWM student, but especially prospective teachers, beginning with their first semester on campus. These courses will be designed to achieve an interrelated, fourfold purpose as follows:

1. To ensure that all students in these courses are positively socialized in a planned instructional design calling for interaction with a sustained student cohort or persistent learning group that is structured to reflect differences in race, culture, gender, age, and background experience. The courses would be designed both through scholarly study and firsthand experience for students to gain an understanding and appreciation of both local and global diversity. This cohort would also serve as a collaborative study group on occasion.
2. To allow all students to acquire an understanding of the local urban community and its diverse neighborhoods as these exist in the context of an interdependent global community, again through scholarly study and firsthand experience. This series of courses would examine community contexts through such lenses as those provided by the historian, the sociologist, the cultural anthropologist, the political scientist, and the urban geographer. Literature, the fine arts, architecture, business, engineering, religion, and education all pertain as well

to acquiring multiple interpretations and understandings of community and urban community.

3. In addition to the wealth of resources on the campus that can contribute in manifold ways to this series of courses, there is a great range of talented and dedicated individuals from the community as well who could be incorporated into these courses, ranging from CEOs to community activists. It would be essential in order to maintain a dynamic interplay with the community to have widespread and continuing involvement with these individuals from the community in both the planning and delivery of these courses. Thus, there would be a degree of reciprocity as well as two-way interaction between campus and community. Those in the community will often contribute directly to the instruction, and the students, through some of their "learning" experiences, would contribute to the community as the final goal underscores.
4. To provide all students with multiple opportunities to apply their learning in a problem-oriented manner in various community contexts and to engage them in some service learning as part of this sequence of courses.

In summary, diversity and multiculturalism, partnerships, and collaboration will characterize this series of courses. These courses would also be highly interdisciplinary and permeate campus life and culture with emphasis on the interaction of campus with the larger community. The courses would have two integrating themes or organizers: (a) building a diverse community of learners who acquire abilities and understanding to enhance learning alone and together and to capitalize on diversity in doing so (as argued for at the outset of this paper) and (b) developing students who understand and will be disposed to contribute to the broader urban community in which the university resides.

The primary argument in support of this cultures and community proposal is that it squarely addresses the mission of an urban university calling for a pervasive, powerful interaction between those on campus and those in the community which is intended in multiple ways to benefit both parties. Secondly, such a sequence of courses speaks directly to the bedrock mission of

universities generally, not only to provide students with a high quality education, but to provide them with the abilities and disposition to be an adaptive lifelong learner and a contributing citizen to our local and global communities. Beyond this, the applied, experiential, often collaborative, problem-oriented type of learning, which would characterize this sequence of course, is wholly consonant with what is known about deep conceptual learning generally (Borko & Putnam, 1998).

A second priority for universities in urban settings would be to develop courses for more experienced teachers that would have an *interprofessional* character to them. There are relatively few interprofessional programs across the country that bring together various professions to work together to redress problems in their communities, particularly urban communities, and particularly problems confronting urban youth. Such pilot programs would include bringing together various professionals from the health professions, law, architecture, social work, education, and so forth across the university.

For some time now the concept of professional development schools has been promulgated in partnerships between universities or more specifically schools of education and partnering K-12 schools. These professional development schools however tend not to be priorities at either the district or all-university level. Since so many youth living on the edges of poverty are involved with a number of social, health, legal, and family agencies, and since the notion of comprehensive or "wrap-around" schools is still trying to find its way through urban bureaucracies, it would seem well advised to find ways to pilot more interprofessional programs and the development of *interprofessional* development schools as well as professional development schools.

Recommendation 3

Thus, the third major recommendation in this paper is that policies at the state level are considered in terms of how to foster a fuller understanding of and commitment to urban communities by students in urban universities, and especially prospective urban teachers. Seed monies should be set aside to foster major curriculum and instructional transformations across the university, such as the general education courses envisioned in the cultures and community example. These curricular and instructional transformations would necessitate the involvement of a variety of individuals in the communities in adjunct capacities to the university. They would call for faculty to develop

curriculum that provides exemplary learning experiences for their students but often times with service to the urban community in which the university is located. The position taken here is that it is *not* feasible to adequately prepare prospective teachers to succeed in urban contexts in the present life space of most teacher education programs, particularly when they have grown up in a radically different context and culture. What has been overlooked is how the general studies portion of a prospective teacher preparation might be examined to better prepare teachers, and for that matter prepare all students to be better citizens with regard to our major urban communities. Similar support should be provided for pilot interprofessional programs in which veteran teachers would be integral members and in which *interprofessional* development schools would be a component. Both of these examples would call for close cooperation between faculty across the university and diverse constituencies within the urban setting and for support by an infrastructure such as The Milwaukee Academy.

Achieving Fundamental Improvements in Professional Programs Targeted for Teachers in Urban Schools

Historically, what tended to characterize programs preparing teachers for the urban context was their immersion in urban schools (Research About Teacher Education Study, 1992). While the need for a variety of well-designed experiences in urban schools and urban communities is obvious, accounts of these programs revealed little in a fine-grained manner about such preparation or its effects. Additionally, it was unclear what changes had been made in the overall curriculum and instruction of the program.

As studies of teacher education or learning to teach have clearly demonstrated, uninformed and unexamined practice, especially in challenging school contexts, can be a woefully inadequate and highly misleading teacher (Zeichner, Melnick, & Gomez, 1996). Surely, competent and caring teachers need to know their subject matter deeply and have a core repertoire of teaching approaches to engage their students effectively in that subject matter. This is essential. This is not enough however to succeed in urban schools. Studies of preparation programs in the Urban Network to Improve Teacher Education suggest more is needed for teachers to succeed in urban schools in a variety of cultural contexts and with youngsters who live in or on the edges of poverty; teachers in

urban schools need preparation that is designed to:

- Provide knowledge of sociocultural-political factors that influence learning and behavior by youngsters in and out of school in urban contexts.
- Help them understand forms of bias and discontinuity in curriculum materials and classroom interaction (e.g., linguistic bias, invisibility, stereotyping).
- Engage them through both scholarly analyses and in-depth experience with other cultures and languages in order to examine in-depth their own cultural norms, references, and behavioral patterns.
- Help them examine in a continuing manner the interactions and relationships between language, learning, and culture in and outside of urban schools.
- Enable them to continually inventory resources and assets in urban contexts and how these can be brought to bear to enable learning in and out of school.
- Help them understand their own and others' biases and prejudices as these relate to social class, race, gender, religion, sexual preference, and such commonplace manifestations in school as dress, physical appearance, ability, and behavior.
- Enable them to engage subject matter and social issues especially from multiple perspectives.
- Assist them in becoming *advocates* for all youth but especially those who do not have equal opportunities. (1996, p. 26)

Core understandings and abilities such as above should be addressed in a thematic manner throughout programs of preparation.

Further, there is a growing empirical base around the dispositions, knowledge, and abilities needed to teach ethnic- and language-minority students. Zeichner (1996) characterizes these attributes in the following ways: high expectations, scaffolding, teacher knowledge, teaching strategies, and assessment and parent involvement and describes them as follows:

High expectations: the belief by teachers that all students can succeed, and the communication of this belief to students, by creating a classroom context in which all students feel valued and capable of academic success, where teachers take a personal commitment toward achieving success for all students, and where teachers' faith in the ability of students to succeed is communicated by providing students with academically challenging work.

Scaffolding: bridging between the cultures of school and home, with the intent to use the scaffolds to help students learn the culture of the school while maintaining identification and pride within the home culture. In scaffolding, supports are constructed for students that enable them to move through related experiences from the home toward the demands of school. The point here is to allow cultural elements that are relevant to the students to enter the classrooms, and at the same time make explicit teaching of the codes and customs of the school.

Teacher knowledge: in order for teachers to be able to implement the principle of cultural inclusion in their classrooms, they need general sociocultural knowledge about child and adolescent development, about second-language acquisition, and about the ways that socioeconomic circumstances, language, and culture shape school performance and educational achievement.

Teaching strategies: a focus on meaning-making and content is key . . . Successful teachers [of ethnic- and language-minority] students create opportunities for students to learn to use, try, and manipulate language, symbols, and information in the service of making sense or creating meaning, though some questions have been raised about the efficacy of some allegedly progressive reciprocal practices. What is clear is that teachers need a variety of teaching strategies and practices in order to be able to respond to the varied needs of their students.

Assessment and parent involvement: it is argued that teachers need a good understanding of the school community and or how to involve parents and other community members in authentic ways in the school program. The literature clearly encourages teachers to learn about curricular-based assessment practices, student portfolios, checklists and inventories, and notes from teachers' observations. (Zeichner, 1996, pp. 140-142)

Programs preparing teachers for urban contexts need to focus not only on enabling new understanding but examining *prior* understandings and powerful beliefs which prospective teachers bring to programs of preparation. Beliefs about youngsters for whom English is a second language is an example. Teachers' choices about pedagogical approaches and the types of relationships they establish with multilingual students can be contingent upon their perspective on language. Baker (1993) suggests that contradictions emerge in the discourse of both educators and sectors of the public who tend to see multiple languages as a resource but devalue the indigenous language of minority cultures. In other words, they view bilingualism or multilingualism in positive terms as long as it applies only to the dominant culture. Thus, examining teacher beliefs over time and particularly about such core constructs as language, culture, poverty, equity and equal access is an important component of teacher preparation. As several studies have shown, a particularly useful framework for this is to examine one's own class and culture and how these mediate one's understandings and beliefs. Such beliefs about other cultures and classes of people tend to have been subject to little internal examination or study previously (Seidl, 1996).

Urban Mission Statements

Understandings and abilities that are viewed as key to successful teaching in urban schools should be represented thematically throughout programs and should derive from clear mission statements about the *urban* nature of the program. For example, at the University of Tennessee the vision of the Urban Teacher Education Program is clearly presented in a mission statement as

follows:

Our purpose in this program is to prepare multicultural educators who are knowledgeable about and affirm diversity in all its form: social class, gender, race and ethnicity, sexual preference, and differing abilities. The notion of critical multicultural education (anti-racist education) is infused throughout the program as preservice teachers examine the sociocultural contexts of schools and communities, child development, curriculum, and pedagogy. We are especially committed to preparing teachers who can effectively use transformative pedagogical practices in urban schools.

The Urban/Multicultural Teacher Education Program is designed for elementary education students who see themselves teaching in urban schools or with students from diverse cultural backgrounds. The purpose of the program is to prepare highly qualified teachers to work in schools in urban/multicultural settings with children who come primarily from impoverished families.

The Urban/Multicultural Teacher Education Program is framed in the disciplines of Social Foundations, particularly sociology and anthropology of education. The politics of schooling are examined through a sociological analysis of school structures. They examine the ways in which political and social structures impact teachers' work lives in urban school bureaucracies. The traditional "methods" of language arts, science, math, and social studies are framed as part of the elementary school curriculum but within the *sociocultural context of children's lives*. The methods portion of our program is also grounded in transformative school practices based on the premise that traditional schooling has not been successful in urban/multicultural communities and that teachers must have a wide repertoire of pedagogical and curricular practices that engage students from diverse communities. (Demarrais, 1996)

What is also essential is preparing teachers not just for urban schools but for successful urban schools. In this regard, evidence continues to accumulate that in good schools teachers not only work closely with their colleagues, but they also continue to learn with and *from* one another. Judith Warren Little (1982) almost two decades ago showed that schools can be differentiated in quality by the degree to which:

1. Teachers engage in frequent, continuous, and increasingly concrete and precise talk about teaching practice.
2. Teachers are frequently observed and provided with useful (if potentially frightening) critiques of their teaching by one another.
3. Teachers plan, design, research, evaluate, and prepare teaching materials together.
4. Teachers teach each other the practices of teaching. (p. 331)

Rosenholtz (1989) contrasted such highly collaborative practices in her study of the culture of teachers' workplace, portraying schools with nominal cooperation and low-consensus among teachers

as follows:

Dreams of possibility were not likely the domain of isolated workplaces. Inertia seemed to overcome teachers' adventurous impulses, and listlessness devoted itself to well-trodden paths. In their ordered routines, teachers' self-reliance appeared not to be a civic sin, an act of selfishness against the community; it seemed rather a moral imperative. And because no one wished to challenge school norms of self-reliance, in times of classroom crises most teachers skirted the edges of catastrophe alone and somehow managed to lead themselves to a safe haven. (p. 207)

Socializing Teachers to Work Together

The problems of transience and bureaucracy in *urban* schools, as reported by scholars such as Weiner (1993), reveal that too often these schools look more like the low consensus and nominally collaborative schools. Thus, in order to prepare and dispose teachers to succeed in urban schools, purposeful and powerful *socialization* activities need to be provided to preservice teachers. The "lived" curriculum of teacher education needs to be manifest in short-term cohorts, persistent learning groups, or "learning communities" arrangements. There are already many variations in this regard across our case study sites in the Urban Network to Improve Teacher Education (UNITE). These cohort arrangements serve both as forms of professional socialization and *learning-to-teach* activities. Cohorts of prospective teachers for example engage in various forms of "asset" mapping in urban neighborhoods in which their schools are located to underscore the rich resources, as well as problems, that exist in urban neighborhoods. Other prospective teachers study the community in terms of its urban geography or how it is influenced by political structures. There are multiple examples of experienced and novice teachers working together in UNITE to reinforce a collaborative culture.

Data from the RATE Studies (1993) suggest a continuing emphasis on preparing teachers in relatively abbreviated programs as technically ready to teach rather than providing them with potent strategies as well to inform and drive their growth as teachers *over time*. Further, efforts to reform teacher preparation are primarily through *curricular* adaptations rather than focusing on fundamental transformations in the nature of *teaching* and *learning* attached to these curricula. In response to this latter problem particularly, partnership sites in UNITE are attempting to develop strategies for learning to teach over time. Again the position taken here is that the development of

these strategies should begin in general studies, permeate professional preparation, and be refined and enriched as they are revisited again and again in the early year(s) of teaching. The strategies can provide *coherence* to preservice programs and they can also serve as a more visible bridge or link to entry year(s) education. A priority strategy is the examination of instructional practice and especially impact on youngsters' learning. The guiding image for the network is that of the teacher as an increasingly skillful problem solver over time.

Examples of learning to teach strategies that are *thematic* in UNITE urban programs include: (1) teaching clinics; (2) case development and analyses of both best practices and persistent issues; (3) studies of youth framed by various developmental and cultural perspectives; (4) systematic examination of student work as a guide for teaching decisions; (5) analyses of teaching/learning activities from multiple perspectives and employing a variety of conceptual lenses; (6) variations on classroom action research; and (7) studies of classrooms and schools as organizations and social systems.

Each of these core learning strategies has special applications to successfully teaching youngsters in the *urban* context. Cases, for example, are developed around redressing the bureaucratic barriers encountered in urban schools. Teaching clinics focus on how issues of equity and matters of diversity permeate any instructional activity. Study groups examine patterns of student behavior in schools as mediated, for example, by race and culture. The examination of student work is commonly linked to out-of-school factors that influence how students behave in school. Analyses of classroom interaction focus on relationships between language, culture, and learning. Variations on action research inquire into the effects of grouping arrangements and testing on different student populations. Finally, focused forms of organizational inquiry examine how community involvement in school—often difficult to sustain in urban contexts—might be enabled.

In summary, there are two overriding strategies put forward in UNITE preparation programs: (1) more sustained and powerful forms of professional socialization in order for teachers to support and learn from one another in urban contexts and to dispose them toward political action; and (2) an abiding emphasis on specific strategies for learning to teach over time. Urban schools especially demand teachers who can "reinvent" and renew their schools of necessity.

The Essentiality of Thoughtful, Structured Experiences in Urban *Communities*

Investigating interactions between the school and various aspects of the community is common across the urban sites. A UNITE member at one of the sites shared the following with this author in an interim report:

In my meetings with teachers in the urban inner-city schools our students would be working in, it became clear that, although the teachers were highly skilled at working with the students, many of them knew little about the communities in which the schools existed and in which the students lived. In fact, most of the teachers drove in from the suburbs to teach. So that our students would not suffer the same deficit, I required each of them to spend about twenty percent of their first semester practicum time working in some community organization (such as a food bank, homeless shelter, etc.). The purpose of this project was twofold: First, involvement in the community group would help students to learn something about the places in which the schools existed. Second, the dual involvement in an urban school and in an urban community organization would help them to interpret the *relationship* between and among these. So as to understand urban education as a component of the complexity of life in the urban community, I felt that these interpretations needed to be made by beginning teachers.

At other UNITE sites prospective teachers work in cohorts to document the various facets of urban school communities. The prospective teachers interview teachers, students, parents and members of the larger community. During this time, these preservice teachers also read selections that address sociocultural issues in the community. The students write letters seeking responses to issues they raise. One cohort, for example, researched the impact of a Youth Services Center.

Throughout these urban preparation programs, veteran urban teachers take on key roles and assume a number of titles, such as teacher-in-residence or adjunct, associate, or clinical faculty. Their distinctive role in urban schools is underscored by a veteran teacher assigned to a preservice program in UNITE. In an interim report, she observed the following about urban teacher education and her role as a Faculty Associate:

I would argue that the urban practicum or student teaching cannot be entered into without considerable thought as to how the work of the university will be interpreted at the practicum site... Close connections with practice without the mitigating influence of the Faculty Associate can produce a situation in which the norms of the school become the practice of the student teachers and the learning from the university is lost. I recognize that this situation is not universal and that the many classrooms reinforce the message of the university, however, where the message is dissonant, the stronger culture of the school will often overwhelm that of the university. Faculty associates are one way to connect the two; to build a bridge from the university to the field and to bring the voice of theory to life in classrooms in credible ways.

Particularly in *urban* settings, I see the faculty associate as pivotal. Here we have

teachers in classrooms where students are stigmatized for many reasons and who do not easily welcome prying eyes. They will protect their children from outside scrutiny whenever they perceive that scrutiny to be critical. Their problems are myriad and their solutions to them fragile. As in my case, I see the faculty associate entering that environment as a colleague, as a resource and as support. From my experience I believe that there are many compelling reasons for engaging faculty associates in this role.

While our emphasis in UNITE has been on preparing teachers for the urban context, our intent was to build on what we had learned about how to make programs of teacher preparation better generally. Howey and Zimpher, the two initial architects of UNITE, had previously studied programs of teacher preparation at various sites and identified a number of general attributes or characteristics of good teacher preparation programs. Their research was analogous to that conducted by scholars who engaged in field studies of elementary and secondary schools. These scholars studied schools identified as good along a number of criteria and further delineated those qualities. A similar procedure was followed with schools of education. The goal in UNITE has been to build on those attributes found in good programs generally and in addition give them a distinctive urban flavor:

What factors speak generally to the quality of *programs* of preservice preparation? Howey and Zimpher (1989) offered this tentative conceptualization of a program as a heuristic for needed further inquiry into the kinds of contexts, activities, and experiences that generally enable learning to teach:

Programs have one or more frameworks grounded in theory and research as well as practice; frameworks that explicate, justify, and build consensus around such fundamental conceptions as the *role* of the teacher, the *nature* of teaching and learning, and the *mission* of school in this democracy.... Programs embedded in such frameworks clearly establish priorities in terms of key dispositional attitudes and behaviors that are enabled and monitored in repeated structured experiences. Programs reflect consideration of ethos and culture building and the critical socialization of the prospective teacher. The nature and function of collegial relationships is considered both between and among faculty and students as well as with those who assume responsibilities for teacher preparation in K-12 schools. Conceptually coherent programs enable needed and *shared* faculty leadership by underscoring collective roles as well as individual course responsibilities. Programs also contribute to more mutual endeavors in research and evaluation beyond the individual course level. Various student cohort arrangements and other temporary social systems such as inquiry teams, cooperative learning structures, or political action committees are considered. Finally, programs provide considerable guidance both in terms of the nature and pattern of preprofessional or preeducation study and also extended experiences in schools in the nature of induction programs. (p. 242)

Darling-Hammond (1999) summarized parallel findings from her recent studies of teacher education:

- a common, clear vision of good teaching that is apparent in all coursework and clinical experiences;
- a core curriculum grounded in substantial knowledge of child and adolescent development, learning theory, cognition, motivation, and subject matter pedagogy taught in the context of practice;
- extended clinical experiences (at least 30 weeks) which are carefully chosen to support the ideas and practices presented in simultaneous, closely interwoven coursework;
- well-defined standards of practice and performance that are used to guide and evaluate coursework and clinical work;
- strong relationships, common knowledge, and shared beliefs among school- and university-based faculty;
- extensive use of case study methods, teacher research, performance assessments, and portfolio evaluation to ensure that learning is applied to real problems of practice. (pp. 233-234)

In summary of this section and consistent with these attributes, UNITE sites preparing teachers for urban settings tend to reflect the following characteristics:

1. The identification of urban community, urban youth, urban school, and urban teaching characteristics that appeared to have implications for how teachers should be prepared.
2. An explicit mission statement sharing assumptions and guiding principles about urban education programs.
3. The development of a program framework or vision identifying core understandings and abilities required to teach successfully in urban schools.
4. The development thematically of various programmatic activities to address the understandings, abilities, and dispositions demonstrated by successful urban teachers.
5. The professional socialization of preservice teachers focused on enabling them to work effectively with others and to support one another in challenging teaching environments.
6. The identification of specific approaches for learning to teach over time, a necessity in challenging urban schools.
7. The employment of teachers from urban schools in all aspects of teacher preparation including team or co-teaching arrangements and program design.
8. The selection and development of specific urban partner or professional development school sites or clusters of schools to accommodate students in the preservice programs.
9. The involvement of prospective teachers in a host of urban community and community agency activities.
10. The design and development of a range of assessment tools and procedures tied to beliefs, understandings about, and abilities to succeed in urban contexts to ensure, as Darling-Hammond suggested above, that learning is applied to real problems as often as possible.
11. The development of program structures and organizational features to accommodate a balance between campus and urban school and urban community, between theory and practice, action and reflection, and challenge and support; to avoid immersion in an

urban school as the defining feature of teacher preparation.

Recommendation 4

A major recommendation is that policies be put in place to provide venture capital for programs that are specifically designed to recruit and prepare teachers for urban schools. These programs would have to be products of a partnership and meet programmatic criteria such as those articulated in this section. They would require performance testing of teachers as a central aspect of the evaluation. They would require a follow-up, *aligned* induction program as addressed in the next section. In this manner general teacher performance could be measured in multiple ways during preservice with an emphasis on distinctive attributes as identified for the urban setting. The alignment between preservice program goals and what first-year teachers actually do in their entry year could follow in year two. The impact of these teachers on their pupils would be the focus in year three.

Extending Urban Teacher Preparation in a Seamless Manner into the First Year(s) of Teaching

In a recent review of the literature on new teacher induction by Feiman-Nemser, Schwille, Carver, and Yusko (1999) induction was characterized in three different ways:

1. A distinctive phase in learning to teach,
2. A process of teacher socialization, and
3. A program for beginning teachers.

These scholars clarified these different meanings of the term induction, how it is used in different contexts, and what issues are associated with these different views. Whatever perspective taken, these scholars underscored the pivotal position that induction holds occurring between initial preparation and continuing professional development. Teacher induction or entry year(s) is a critical element in any comprehensive reform agenda and this period of time draws attention to issues of teacher education, teacher evaluation, licensure, and the role of various educational organizations in all of this. It is, or should be, a primary focal point for strong partnership structures such as The Milwaukee Academy. Feiman-Nemser and her colleagues note that when induction is defined primarily as a short-term *support* to help teachers survive their first year on the job, then its role in fostering quality teaching and learning is greatly diminished.

They describe the type of teaching that should be fostered in this induction period:

One hallmark of this kind of teaching is its responsiveness to student thinking. To teach in ways that support and extend student thinking, teachers must be able to elicit and interpret students' ideas and generate appropriate pedagogical moves as the lesson unfolds (Ball & Wilson, 1996; Heaton & Lampert, 1990; Lampert, 1985). The need to attend to what students say and construct appropriate responses on a moment-to-moment basis rather than following a prepared lesson plan places special demands on teachers. It also highlights challenging aspects of teaching which must ultimately be learned in practice—learning to size up teaching situations, investigate what students are thinking, and use the information gathered to inform and improve practice (1999, p. 18).

They go on to state however:

Because the early years of teaching have not been taken seriously as a time for teacher learning, we do not have well-developed ideas about how to use the practice of beginning teaching as a site for professional learning. Still, some thoughtful mentors have been doing just that. By studying their interactions with new teachers, we can gain insights into how new teacher learning can be situated in the contexts of teaching and in the company of experience teachers who see themselves as teachers of teaching, not only "support providers" (1999, p.18).

While Feiman-Nemser and her colleagues did not study formal programs of induction as such, a recent national study of *urban* teacher induction programs and practices was completed by Recruiting New Teachers, a nonprofit organization addressing the shortage of qualified teachers in the United States. This report, authored by Fideler and Haselkorn (1999) reviewed diverse efforts to provide for beginning teachers in *urban* areas and makes the following six general recommendations with regard to induction programs. The programs should:

1. View induction as a multiyear, developmental process and an extension of preservice preparation.
2. Ensure that school administrators understand how to orient inductees, create supportive working conditions for them, and effectively meet their professional needs.
3. Provide a first-class mentoring program backed up by funding adequate to serve all eligible inductees.
4. Link the inductee evaluation to district- and state-level standards for what a beginning teacher should know and be able to do.
5. Invest in technology to facilitate communication between and among inductees, their mentors, and university faculty.
6. Evaluate the effectiveness of these programs. (1999, pp. 116-117)

Fideler and Haselkorn, as Feiman-Nemser and her colleagues, stress the educative aspects of induction, viewing it, as this author does, as an extension of preservice preparation and a multiyear endeavor. Given the critical nature of induction, attention to the conditions in the entry year that should be in place and which have implications for state policies are briefly reviewed.

First, entry year(s) or induction programs obviously cannot be some peripheral nicety in which a nominal orientation to the school and the district is provided to the first-year teacher and they are assigned a "buddy" or "mentor" teacher with whom they can meet occasionally to learn the "lay of the land" but with little attention to the urban school *community*. Rather, veteran collaborating or consulting teachers who have the time, understanding, and support to assist them will be needed. These veteran teachers will need to engage in rigorous preparation themselves consonant with the best understandings that have been acquired about what it means to learn to teach. Learning to teach is not some form of social modeling behavior which can be done by observing more expert and experienced teachers. Rather it is a developmental process of acquiring principles to guide sound teaching practice, of making explicit "theories-in-use." This highly clinical enterprise is best undertaken through sustained discourse driven by inquiry into practice and especially teacher impact on student work. Rentel (1994) aptly describes such teacher reasoning:

Growth of teaching knowledge and skill is an extraordinarily complex process, apparently organized around a web of abstract beliefs, principles, and justifications about the teaching of rather specific subjects. Yet the process of growth is deeply sensitive to students and to the social and political contexts of classroom and school life. No simple description of subject mastery can capture how teachers become skilled in their craft...The most direct implication of this literature on teachers' reasoning for preservice teacher preparation is that preservice teachers should be exposed to as much clinical and firsthand experience as time and resources permit, coupled with opportunities to reflect on and reason about these everyday situations. Teaching is not simply a didactic procedure. (p. 197)

Surely learning to teach is not some simple didactic exercise. Rather the type of clinical preparation seen in rounds in physician and nurse preparation is akin to what should occur in expert/novice teacher clinical sessions, with each having multiple opportunities to observe one another as the precondition for rigorous analyses of teaching and learning activities.

An inexcusable practice at present is assigning beginning teachers full-time responsibilities in the most challenging settings in our urban settings with nominal, if any, informed assistance from others. Surely the type of guidance called for by Rentel is virtually nonexistent. A more graduated entry into full-time teaching for beginning teachers can serve multiple purposes, not the least of which is assuring greater accountability for instruction for the youngsters in those classrooms where beginning teachers are assigned. This graduated entry with both a reduced assignment for the

beginning teacher and some redirected assignment for selected veteran teachers also encourages school renewal, if conducted largely as a function of the collective, ongoing examination of learning and teaching.

Staffing patterns other than the all-too-common self-contained teacher model can be piloted in these arrangements and induction programs could be viewed as multiple experiments in how to organize flexible teams of different types of teachers working with groups of students over time. These experiments could broadly foster an array of learning opportunities that cannot currently be provided in the traditional arrangement of one teacher to 25 or 30 youngsters. Beginning teachers with a reduced assignment whom veteran teachers oversee with occasional redirected responsibilities from their own teaching is a start in this direction. Earlier this paper spoke of the need to develop pipelines for teacher aides and paraprofessionals. Whenever possible beginning teachers could also be part of a mosaic of aides, student teachers, lead teachers, and occasional university faculty. Veteran lead and consulting or "linking" teachers, perhaps better terms than "mentors," could broker additional resources throughout the school and school community to assist the novice. Such a linking role is commonly overlooked in the induction literature as induction is too often not viewed as enculturation, as well as education, that demands attention to the larger school culture.

Programs for further preparing consulting teachers should be jointly designed and developed by exemplary teacher educators and accomplished experienced teachers. Over time it is reasonable to assume that the veteran teachers assigned to work with beginning teachers will have stood for advanced certification from the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS). These select teachers, working hand-in-glove with school-based teacher educators from schools and colleges of education, can increasingly serve as the linchpin for improved cooperation between higher education and the K-12 school community at the school level in aligned reforms. Individuals from both sectors can pilot new boundary-spanning roles to foster K-16 collaboration. Fostering such "blended culture" roles is only part of the puzzle however as strong interinstitutional arrangements such as The Milwaukee Academy are needed as well.

Without oversimplifying the economic equation, this writer suggests that a deferred initial teaching license, a reduced assignment, and a small corresponding reduction in earnings at the outset

of a teaching career, can be more than offset by leadership opportunities and significantly enhanced earnings for teachers later in their career, as various teacher career lattices begin to evolve. The engagement of students in high-quality learning, when planned by a team of teachers with both differentiated and graduated roles and responsibilities, is from this vantagepoint a critical component of school reform that blends nicely with how teachers should be prepared and inducted initially. These experimental staffing patterns could especially be piloted in a number of Professional Development, Partnership, or Portal Schools. The direct links between how teachers are prepared and how schools are organized and how teachers relate one to another cannot be emphasized enough.

Developing a credential-supported teacher education role for select veteran teachers such as "clinic" or "consulting" teacher, could accomplish more than needed assistance to the beginning teacher. These veteran "lead" or consulting teachers can also be of considerable assistance to their experienced colleagues as well. In this more formalized transition between initial teacher education and the first year(s) of teaching, strong institutional linkages can be made between higher education and the elementary and secondary sector in terms of how both lead teachers and the beginning teachers are prepared and supported. One basic incentive for higher education to participate in such arrangements is to attach credit hours to the jointly designed and jointly provided training for both the clinic and the transitional, beginning, or "intern" teachers as they are now referred to in some of the new licensure requirements. A second incentive for higher education in these collaborative endeavors would be the opportunity for university-based teacher educators to demonstrate competence as an accomplished teacher of both adults and youngsters and to acquire a credential or certificate parallel to that which select veterans obtain through certification by the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards. A major incentive for the local districts to participate in these induction arrangements is the ability to expand their resource base through the higher education involvement and through the development of new leadership roles.

Although the rationale for entry-year programs should be based primarily on the quality of instruction offered to youngsters in first-year teachers' classrooms, additional arguments can be put forth for the structured and sustained education and evaluation of these new teachers throughout their early years of teaching. For example, these entry-year arrangements provide:

- A quality assurance about the education provided to youngsters in novices' classrooms.
- The needed extension of preservice preparation focusing on the fuller development and refinement of understanding and abilities, consistent with general entry-level standards such as those promulgated by INTASC but focused as well on the particular curriculum of the school and its students and community.
- An incentive for new teachers to pursue assignments in contexts and settings where high-quality applicants are especially needed but where they are unlikely to seek positions without entry-year support, namely urban schools.
- The opportunity to evaluate beginning teachers in a continuing and rigorous manner and to screen out teachers who lack the necessary attitudes and dispositions to work effectively with youngsters, again in a standard-based, performance assessment mode.
- A means of improving the retention rate of many outstanding veteran urban teachers who, at the peak of their careers, have some aspirations beyond classroom teaching. Thus, they often leave classroom responsibilities because there are no viable alternatives. In this entry year arrangement they can combine teaching with the role of a consulting, clinic or lead teacher.
- A vehicle for achieving more effective partnerships between those in higher education and those in K-12 schools by bringing complementary resources to bear on mutual concerns.

Recommendation 5

State-level standards for what constitutes a teacher entry-year program should be explicated and supported with recurring funds. The local entry-year plan to be submitted to the state should address (a) the governance of the program; (b) the selection criteria, preparation, and qualifications of consulting teachers; (c) the release time schedule for consulting teachers and beginning teachers; and (d) the role of higher education/teacher education in the continued preparation and evaluation of first-

year teachers, especially as these pertain to acquiring initial licensure.

A credential for the clinic or consulting teachers to work both with first-year teachers and with preservice teachers should be established with the assistance of state advisory councils on teacher education and with input from both the higher education/teacher education and K-12 school communities. Given the importance of this consulting function, the complexity of the task, and the extra demands beyond regular teaching, the assumption is that the preparation to obtain such a clinic teacher credential would likely entail, at a minimum, the time equivalent to earning six graduate semester hour credits.

Regional centers representing higher education and the K-12 sector could provide the training for the clinical or consulting teachers and also some credit-bearing courses for first-year teachers throughout their initial year(s) of teaching. It is essential that this instruction be framed by teacher performance standards. The regional centers would draw on faculty from across institutions of higher education along with staff development specialists from local districts to jointly offer this training. This regional concept would contribute to collaboration among institutions of higher education and, importantly, call for them to agree on the core or essential knowledge and skills that are to be addressed by beginning teachers in the first years of teaching as an extension of preservice preparation.

This writer suggests that approximately \$3,000.00 should be allocated annually to local districts for each beginning teacher/consulting teacher pair for redirected time. This basically works out to 30 days (1 day a week for most school weeks for a substitute teacher at \$100 a day, one-half day per week for the consulting or linking teacher, and one-half day for the novice).

Funding for the training program would be contingent on studying the effects of induction on student achievement, as Sanders and Rivers (1998) studied such effects in teachers generally in Tennessee. A priority would be given to induction programs in urban settings. These induction programs would have to demonstrate a partnership arrangement as articulated earlier in this report, with input from various stakeholders in the design, implementation and evaluation of the program.

Addressing Both Ends of the Teacher Education Continuum Simultaneously

There is surely no one solution and surely no easy solution for better recruiting, preparing and

retaining teachers for urban schools. Thus, this multi-faceted and coordinated reform agenda is proposed. In the prior section on induction, more formalized educative programs as a necessary extension of preservice preparation were recommended. Further substantive preparation for consulting teachers to work with beginning teachers, perhaps with a credential attached, was advised. This consulting teacher role however is just one of several lead teacher roles that could be piloted to expand instructional leadership at the school level especially. The administrative responsibilities of principals are considerable and especially in urban schools. The education community has not addressed what new roles and responsibilities specially prepared teachers might assume to contribute to school organizations and cultures that support learning for teachers as well as students. Timpane (1998) reported that there is a growing consensus in the research and policy community to move beyond the individual classroom if more ambitious forms of teaching and learning are to be instituted on any scale. He writes:

No matter how talented the individual teacher, the individual classroom is too fragile an environment to be sustained without support throughout the school. School district and higher jurisdictions are too remote and regulatory; they can support improved learning but cannot bring it about (p. 4).

In this regard this writer argues that at the school level leadership capacity must be diffused and deepened if instructional innovations are to be extended and sustained over time. Two potential strategies for increasing leadership capacity are 1) include teachers on school leadership teams; and 2) to sharpen the division of labor or distribution of expertise among these leadership teams but in a complementary fashion. These strategies will call for various forms of leadership preparation.

The composition of such teams would vary greatly from school to school and community to community. A principle to guide the composition of these teams however is that one or more teachers would have redirected responsibilities to better address the perennial problems which no one has taken responsibility to address. Therefore these problems become everyone's responsibility. Examples of this are the lack of school-based professional development or the integration of modern communications technology more fully into instruction. A problem with current school organizational patterns is that teachers far too frequently end up attempting to be all things to all people. This 'all-purpose' mentality has served as a major constraint to the development and

adaptation of new knowledge and practices in education. In many other professions there is a systematic process of continuing improvement and innovation driven by an increasingly sophisticated division of labor or distribution of expertise. This division of labor is what ultimately demands collaboration. When all teachers address all tasks in an undifferentiated manner, unnecessary competition and undue independence tend to occur. What isn't understood well in education is that some degree of specialization is, in fact, the foundation for the type of collaborative school culture portrayed for some time now by scholars such as Little (1992). Wilson and Daviss (1994) illustrate the contrast of education with other professions as follows:

Finally, a technical culture is held together by formal, enduring avenues of communication among a profession's practitioners, particularly those avenues linking distinct specialties to the common enterprise. In essence, a technical culture becomes the means by which a profession defines itself....

This approach (education) contrasts sharply with that of other professions. American society prides itself on its technical skills in medicine; how far would those skills have advanced if the medical profession had decided that there should be no obstetricians, cardiologists, or cancer specialists—that a “doctor is a doctor”? How quickly would the aircraft industry have advanced if design engineers weren't distinguished from repair mechanics—if the industry had decided that a technician is a technician, all equally capable of doing every job, each worker interchangeable with all others? Few of us would put our children on a jumbo jet flying cross-country if we knew that the airplane's lone pilot was also its only design engineer, mechanic, navigator, chef, and cabin attendant. Yet we regularly entrust our children's future to teachers expected to discharge flawlessly a similar array of burdens in their classrooms, with far less rehearsal, preparation, and support than even the smallest airlines give pilots. (pp. 80, 81)

There is evidence that school-based leadership teams with differentiated roles and responsibilities over time can contribute to continuing renewal at the school level (Maeroff, 1993). This is an especially critical need in urban schools. Given the bureaucratic nature of large urban districts and the common lack of resources, strong leadership at the school level is especially needed. Oakes and Lipton (1999) speak to just some of the challenges in urban schools:

Contemporary schools, then remain segregated not only by race but also by social class and family background. In 1997, the Harvard Project on School Desegregation reported that only 5 percent of segregated white schools face conditions of concentrated poverty, compared with 80 percent of segregated black and Latino schools. These schools also diverge in quality...

Jonathan Kozol's wrenching account, *Savage Inequalities*, vividly portrays inequality that other studies have documented. Most low-income children and children of color attend schools that spend less than schools serving white students. In some states, per-pupil expenditures differ between neighboring high- and low-wealth districts by a factor of three or more. Kozol found black and Latino students in dilapidated Camden, New Jersey, schools learning keyboarding without computers, science without laboratories, and other subjects without enough textbooks to go around. Seven minutes away in white, affluent Cherry Hill, students enjoyed well-kept facilities, including a greenhouse for those interested in horticulture, abundant equipment, and supplies (pp. 12, 13).

Preparing competent and caring teachers for urban schools is only part of the challenge. Supporting and retaining them in classrooms throughout their careers is essential as well. The turnover rate of beginning teachers has been documented for some time. It is not only at this critical outset of teaching that teacher defections become a problem however. Many veteran teachers over time suffer from a lack of support and reach a salary plateau that does not allow them to be adequately compensated for their extended service. The emotional demands of dealing with children who bring a variety of needs beyond cognitive understandings with them into the classrooms are especially acute in urban schools. Many veteran teachers leave teaching at the peak of their careers. As Rentel and Dittmer (1999) write:

Sensitivity and deep appreciation for children, their circumstances, and their uniqueness are essential but not sufficient for successful teaching in inner city schools. Teachers require administrative and economic support as well. The common, recurring temperament of urban schools (Adelman, 1970; Roberts, 1970) is to bury teachers and students in rules, anonymity, lock-step programs, and standardized examinations that drive curricula. The problem for teacher educators is to prepare teachers to resist the forces that strip them and their students of both individuality and community while denying them the opportunity to deal with each other in human terms (1999, p. 16)

A potentially powerful and integrative strategy then is to prepare veteran teachers concurrently with prospective teachers to address both ends of the teacher education continuum simultaneously. The goal is to enable these veteran teachers to both work in all facets of initial teacher preparation and at the same time develop leadership understandings and abilities to help combat the kinds of conditions identified by Rentel and Dittmer; that is, to enable more positive interaction and learning by teachers as well as students. By way of example lead teacher development is a centerpiece of a new initiative in The Milwaukee Academy wherein twenty veteran teachers are being released for a two-year period to play an integral role in all aspects of preparing

beginning teachers for urban schools. This includes involvement in recruitment, curriculum design, co-teaching, and, of course, working with these prospective teachers in the clinical context of urban classrooms and schools. However, during the two-year period in which these carefully selected veteran teachers are released to engage in a major redesign of the preparation of beginning teachers, they will also be engaged in an ongoing leadership institute. The institute is designed so that they can assume a shared leadership role with their principal and others when they return to their schools.

This seems to be an especially propitious time to pursue a variety of teacher leadership roles that will enable teaching and learning in our urban schools. Career ladders and lattices are hardly a new concept but they have not taken hold in the past. For example, in 1986 the Holmes Group (now Partnership) suggested a three-tiered teacher career lattice, underscoring that those who excel in teaching should have opportunities for leadership responsibilities among their colleagues. The authors of

Tomorrow's

Teachers, the Holmes Group publication, referred to this select cadre of teachers as career professionals. They referred to the great majority of the teaching force who would have proven competence in their work as professional teachers, and they referred to beginning teachers as instructors.

Ten years later the National Commission on Teaching in America's Future (NCTAF) in a report entitled, *What Matters Most: Teaching For America's*

Future (1996) revisited this issue of leadership roles for teachers and proposed a new career continuum. The commission recommended that school districts create more fluid and varied roles for educators throughout their careers so that knowledge and talent across the profession could be more widely and easily shared. The report addressed as well structural elements and policy support that would be needed to put in place such leadership roles and career lattices. And in fact, licensing requirements across several states are now putting in place rules and regulations that will facilitate these career ladders. For example, the state legislature in Wisconsin (1997) recently passed rules that put in place three stages of licensure, including initial educator, professional educator, and master

educator.

In conceptualizing the teacher leadership program under The Milwaukee Academy umbrella, a sustaining two-year, credit-bearing institute has resulted. The veteran lead teachers themselves assume integral roles in designing the institute along with a variety of individuals with expertise from the school district, the broader community and the university at large. The ambitious goal of the institute will be to prepare these veteran teachers with understandings and abilities to effect change at the all-school level, to enable bolder forms of teaching and learning, and to promote continuing growth by their colleagues. Central to their responsibility will be addressing a variety of constraints to learning by both teachers and students in urban schools and urban school communities. A priority will be the all-pervasive issue of finding time for teachers to work together on a regular basis.

A key then to achieving broadened and deepened leadership at school sites especially, is to develop a range of new leadership roles for teachers which they can assume while still maintaining primary instructional responsibilities with youngsters. Piloting new leadership roles could reinvigorate and retain many outstanding veteran teachers in our urban schools who otherwise leave the profession because they feel worn down and frustrated by the conditions in which they work, mostly alone. A key to a more fluid and dynamic organizational structure and cooperative cultures is putting in place individuals who can address on a continuing basis the constraints teachers face in securing the time and ability to support one another.

These lead teachers should go through a rigorous selection procedure and receive intensive preparation for these roles. Advanced certification as an accomplished teacher from the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) (1988) would be a reasonable prerequisite for assuming such roles.

The principal's role would remain central and interactive with these new teacher leadership roles and would be played out in a variety of leadership or renewal team arrangements. These teams would be piloted primarily at the school level, but variations on these leadership teams would be appropriate at both the departmental and the district level as well. Also, in Partner or Professional Development Schools (PDSs), higher education faculty would at times assume some of these leadership roles. There is mounting evidence that stable teams of teachers working together over

time, often for multiple years with the same youngsters, and teaching fewer concepts in a deeper manner are predictors of student success in school (Darling-Hammond, 1996).

Several possible leadership roles where no one individual in schools typically appears to have the time, ability, or responsibility to assume leadership are:

1. evaluating professional practice,
2. integrating information and communication technologies,
3. engaging parents and community,
4. improving professional practice,
5. developing standards driven and performance-based instruction materials, and
6. helping students learn with and from one another.

Recommendation 6

To advance the preparation of teachers at this level seed monies should be made available by the state for partnership endeavors between K-12 schools and higher education to jointly develop pilot programs for preparing instructional leadership teams. The priority would be given to urban schools which have high numbers of “at risk” youngsters. The pilot programs for preparing consulting or linking teachers to assist beginning teachers could serve as the first cycle in these pilot leadership development programs. Priority could be given to other lead teacher roles in successive cycles. Examples of these new leadership roles have been provided, and data collected by most states could dictate priorities here. For example, preparing teacher leaders to better integrate a variety of information and communication technologies into instruction might be a priority over a biennial period in one state and developing standards- based instructional strategies in a particular content area or grade level in another.

Developing Materials and Procedures for Urban Students to Learn With and From One Another

A problem in many urban schools is the resistance and oppositional behavior which some minority youngsters manifest toward actively and productively engaging in classroom instruction. Some of these youngsters are concerned about being perceived as acting “white.” Indeed, many

students in general harbor concerns that they will be seen as attempting to curry favor with their teacher, especially in teacher centered instruction as this all too pervasive form of instruction minimizes opportunities for students to learn with and from one another. A second problem is that too few instructional strategies start from the premise that diversity is value added and that instruction can be purposefully structured to capitalize on differences. Learning can be enabled by the dissonance which occurs. This dissonance is sharpened when learning first hand from individuals who are different.

The following example briefly contrasts an approach to instruction where diversity is value-added with a more traditional approach. In the first example, the teacher lectures on civil disobedience and students identify what they think are major concepts in a follow-up activity where they share their thinking in small groups that are rather randomly assigned by the teacher. In the second example, the students read several articles with varying views of civil disobedience. Next, the teacher structures a general discussion around whether such disobedience is constructive or destructive. Students are next put in small groups that are purposefully structured for diversity and where there is disagreement among students over the effects of the topic under study; in this instance civil disobedience. Each group first is asked to prepare a persuasive argument that such disobedience is a constructive necessity. They present their collective position to other students. In the final activity the teacher asks them to reverse their position and present their best argument for the opposing position. Criteria are collectively generated to judge the warrants put forth for each argument and the strength of dissenting opinions. Both collective and individual perspectives and contributions are assessed.

The latter sample represents more complex teaching and learning and requires student skills as well as teacher abilities. However little is done to prepare students to capitalize on diversity in learning activities. They especially need assistance in developing specific strategies and habits for learning with and from others. The diversity in our urban classrooms should be a major asset in terms of cognitive as well as social development.

In this regard there is a burgeoning research literature on cognitive and meta-cognitive

strategies related to student learning. The former body of literature illuminates how students can assume a greater role in the management of their learning. The second body of literature informs us as to how youngsters can monitor how well they are learning. The emphasis has to be on employing these strategies in a *group* as well as on an individual basis, moving from a cognitive to a social-cognitive perspective, if you will. The specific context in which one learns greatly mediates how as well as what one learns and there is an evolving empirical base on the powerful effects of social structures and cultural norms on learning. (Borko and Putnam, 1998) If the emphasis in both classroom contexts and out-of-school or virtual contexts is frequently on collaborative problem solving as opposed to an individual reception mode of learning. Obviously a host of skills beyond learning how to memorize well are needed by students. Skills such as comparing and contrasting, framing and clarifying problems, supporting judgments with evidence from multiple sources, developing alternative hypotheses or explanations for an event or condition, and even identifying the major ideas and assumptions in written materials remain elusive, despite decades of rhetoric on “higher order” thinking skills. Beyond this – and more to the point here -- most students have little understanding of how they can best learn with and from others in various group structures.

A major goal of schools is that youngsters will, over time, assume more and more responsibility for their learning and in a variety of contexts out of school as well as within it. Common cognitive strategies which students can employ collectively to aid learning include: (a) clarifying the purpose of the learning activity; (b) relating their background knowledge to the topic at hand; (c) identifying major concepts and ideas; (d) evaluating materials for consistency; (e) examining compatibility of new material with one’s prior understanding and common sense; and (f) monitoring what is done in the name of learning (in group as well as individual settings) and finally (g) evaluating whether or not learning is occurring and why and what is the group’s role and responsibility in this.

Recommendation 7

This writer is not advocating a special course on the development of “learning skills” such as those above. They are integral to and can be embedded in every aspect of the curriculum. Rather, the recommendation is that early on in the primary grades cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies, such

as the above, should be thematically built into courses of study and explicitly taught to youngsters. Before this can occur however it is clear that intensive faculty development will be needed, not only for prospective teachers but for veteran teachers and professors. As a reasonable start in this direction, it is recommended that a competitive Request For Proposals (RFP) procedure be put in place to solicit jointly developed materials which address how students together as well as alone can monitor, regulate and assume expanded responsibility for the quality of their learning. The integration of these materials into the curriculum should begin in the primary grades. Five general “learning to learn” strategies which could be more fully developed in these competitive grants include:

1. strategies for group monitoring of learning;
2. strategies for problem solving with others in interdependent structures;
3. strategies for assisting cross-age tutors, that is older students helping younger ones;
4. strategies for helping students monitor and manage homework in study groups;
5. strategies for enabling students collectively to apply and assess their in-school learning in a variety of out-of-school contexts.

A priority throughout this materials development would be on how diverse learners can learn from one another. The ability of students from diverse cultures to learn effectively from one another is a priority of the highest order in a society that is increasingly pluralistic, yet stratified and separated. While the teacher understandably assumes the onus of responsibility for creating a community of learners, students obviously have a major responsibility as well. The range of factors associated with race, culture, and class that mediate student classroom behavior and interaction patterns between students and teachers surely mediate interactions between students as well. These materials should centrally address how one’s diversity can be value-added and not a constraint to learning.

Helping Urban Parents Help Their Youngster Learn

Many parents in the growing underclass which is common to many urban contexts have nominal engagement in schools. Many of them believe that school has failed them and they are suspicious of its ability to help their youngster or youngsters. In fact, in many cases their youngsters are bused some distance from the neighborhood in which they live and the schools are literally in a

territory foreign to them. In many instances, these are single parents or parent surrogates struggling to make ends meet and with little time to invest in the school, especially if it is some distance away. Constraints to providing effective parental support are often compounded when parents have limited English proficiency. This is not to say that these parents are not concerned about their youngsters' success. They are. However, they are not always sure, as parents everywhere, just how best to assist their youngsters. The goal here is not some romantic notion of getting these parents more fully engaged in school but helping them support their youngsters' learning out of school.

This is no easy task. The demands placed on urban schools and the teachers who teach in them have increased dramatically in recent years. In addition to the academic curriculum, these teachers and their schools, among other things, are expected to do everything from feeding their students, to keeping them safe and drug free, to protecting them against sexually transmitted diseases. It is little surprise given these increased demands that too little time often remains for developing relationships with parents so that parents come to better understand the ever-changing curriculum, how youngsters learn, and most importantly what they as parents can do to support that learning as partners in education.

While days devoted to teacher development are common, parent workshops or teacher/parent workshops are not. Parents, as teachers, need to be more knowledgeable about general strategies that their youngsters can use to learn effectively. This goes considerably beyond finding a quiet place at home with the television off, although this is often a major challenge itself. It calls for some understanding of straightforward strategies addressed in the prior section of this paper. Parents can also build on their understandings of how they can help their children learn by better understanding the primary objectives of the school curriculum. Again, in many urban schools this is no small order. Nevertheless, the need for effective parental involvement in youngsters' out-of-school learning that is tied to the school curriculum is critical, especially for low-income youngsters. The state could again provide venture capital to address this pervasive problem.

Recommendation 8

Three basic strategies are suggested as a starting point for assisting parents in helping their children learn in the home. The first is the joint development of a user-friendly handbook for parents

that illustrates general principles of learning that are problem-driven and application-based. These materials would provide multiple examples of how many student assignments can be related both to prior experiences in their youngsters' lives and to problem-based applications in their home and in their neighborhood setting. Concept learning as opposed to rote learning would be emphasized throughout. One- to-two hour professional development "modules" would be jointly developed by teams of classroom teachers, college professors and parents themselves. These materials could reasonably be geared toward key concepts as measured by state proficiency tests.

A second emphasis would call for parents to assume at times an appropriate co-learning role in the completion of their youngsters' homework assignments. The emphasis here would be to move from "homework" which emphasizes recall of information to assignments that call for problem solving in the home setting. The objective is to give homework a new and different meaning and occasionally engage parents in reasonable and enjoyable learning activities.

A third set of materials would be designed to compile and codify the multiple ways in which parents and teachers might communicate with one another without necessitating face to face meetings, which is a major constraint to parents' involvement in many urban school contexts. Such communication is a major challenge when there is but one parent in the family; in homes with no phones; and in neighborhoods where many teachers are fearful to go; all realities in some urban neighborhoods. This is beginning work and new territory, but it is very important work as the research literature is quite clear about the powerful positive effects of parents who are directly involved in and supportive of their youngsters' learning (Robinson, 1996).

As a supplement to the self-contained handbook, some professional development could occasionally be provided by teams of teachers and parents in an intensive but short-term training format. Monetary support would be needed for teachers and parents interested in and prepared to assume such responsibility. Modest incentive for parents to participate would have to be built into these projects as well, including at the very least childcare or travel support for many urban parents.

This set of related strategies would require that states put out modestly funded RFPs for the joint design of these materials. The assumption is that parents can and should be involved from time to time in their youngsters' out-of-school assignments, especially assignments designed to strengthen

students' abilities to apply academic learnings to their context out-of-school. Again, the three parental assistance development projects would call for the involvement of parent representatives in the process as well as K-12 and higher education/ teacher education professionals.

Putting In Place Integrated K-16 Policy Boards at the State Level

Collaborative projects between those in higher education and those in K-12 schools focused on urban teacher preparation and related school reform or renewal have a long history. Partnerships are hardly new. These collaborative projects, however, have tended to have a life span coterminous with the funding, often external, which supports the partnership. They tend to exist on the periphery of both organizations, as Teitel (1994) has revealed. Further Darling-Hammond (1994) has reported that the growing number of Professional Development Schools are typically grass-roots, "bottom-up" endeavors often evolving from pre-existing personal contacts and working relationships. They are a far cry from the interinstitutional partnerships envisioned in structures like The Milwaukee Academy.

Rogers and Whetten (1982) in their examination of partnerships identified a continuum of partnerships from situations where the collaboration is characterized by a history of individuals working together with only nominal alterations in their work routines to arrangements which involve broader scale change in partnering institutions. The purpose of this paper is to put forward suggestions to achieve broader, systemic change, to challenge the manner in which different partnering organizations conduct their business. Changing the curriculum of preservice teachers' professional programs in the hope of better preparing teachers for urban contexts is simply not enough. The position taken here is that needed changes must be approached on multiple fronts and at several levels.

Surely, one of these fronts is the policy arena. For example, if a differential assignment is to be provided to the beginning teacher (as a condition which will allow needed support, assessment, and continued education at this critical juncture), and if clinic or consulting teachers are to be prepared, credentialed, and assigned to assist these novice teachers, then a number of major policy changes at the state and local levels will be necessitated. If teacher licensure is to be deferred until successful completion of a residency or internship after one or more years of teaching and if those teachers who work with these "resident teachers" are required to have National Board Certification as

“accomplished” teachers, this too has policy implications. Likewise, if selected higher education faculty are to periodically take on some instructional responsibilities at selected school sites and consulting teachers assume some instructional responsibility in schools and colleges of education, then further policy changes will also be needed. If the best of veteran teachers are to become part of an instructional leadership team assuming new responsibilities at the all-school level while teaching part-time, this has major policy implications. If a core set of educative activities and concomitant standards for all beginning teachers are to be aligned with curriculum and standards in preservice preparation across all teacher preparation institutions in a state or beyond, then policies and procedures for program approval would look different than they do at present. New or revised policies are especially needed to better enable and formalize working relationships and blend the roles and responsibilities of selected individuals from the higher education and K-12 sectors.

Recommendation 9

Thus, in conclusion, this paper calls for the formation of state level K-16 councils comprised of members of the governing boards of both K-12 and higher education sectors. This joint council would conduct a series of policy forums designed to achieve a stronger intersection of the two sectors. These forums would involve a range of educational stakeholders but have increased collaboration between higher education and K-12 education around reforms such as those proposed here as the focus. In summary, the topics they might address would include:

1. Enabling new and more powerful K-16 partnership governance structures in urban settings.
2. Implementing strategies to recruit both a more competent and more diverse teaching force to urban schools.
3. Strengthening urban teacher education as an all-university endeavor.
4. Achieving fundamental improvements in professional programs targeted for teachers in urban schools.
5. Extending urban teacher preparation in a seamless manner into the first year(s) of teaching.
6. Addressing both ends of the teacher education continuum simultaneously.
7. Developing materials and procedures for urban students to learn with and from one another.
8. Helping urban parents help their youngsters learn.

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Appendix A

UNITE Member Partnerships

APS/UNM Professional Development Partnership and Middle Rio Grande Partnership
Bank Street College Partnership
Boston College Partnership
The Capitol Educators

Central Connecticut State University/Consolidated District of New Britain
Cincinnati Professional Practice Schools Partnership
Cleveland State University Partnership
CO-OP Central Ohio/OSU Partnership
The Delaware Partnership
Fordham University Partnership
Holmes Partnership of Greater Louisville
Indiana State University Professional Development Schools Partnership
The Miami Partnership
Michigan State University Partnership
The Milwaukee Partnership Academy
The New Jersey Network for Educational Renewal at Montclair State University
Pittsburgh School District University Collaborative
Prairie View A&M University/Waller Independent School District Holmes Partnership
Professional Development School Partnership (Teachers College)
Richmond Metropolitan Area Partnership
Rutgers University/New Brunswick-Lincoln Professional Development School
St. Louis Partnership for Creating the 21st Century School of Education
UCLA-Los Angeles County Schools Partnership
University of Minnesota-Twin Cities
The University of Memphis Professional Development School Partnership
University of Missouri-Kansas City Partnership
University of Pennsylvania Partnership
The University of Rhode Island Partnership
University of Tennessee-Knoxville Partnership
University of Wisconsin-Madison Partnership
Wayne State University Partnership
Western New York Holmes Partnership

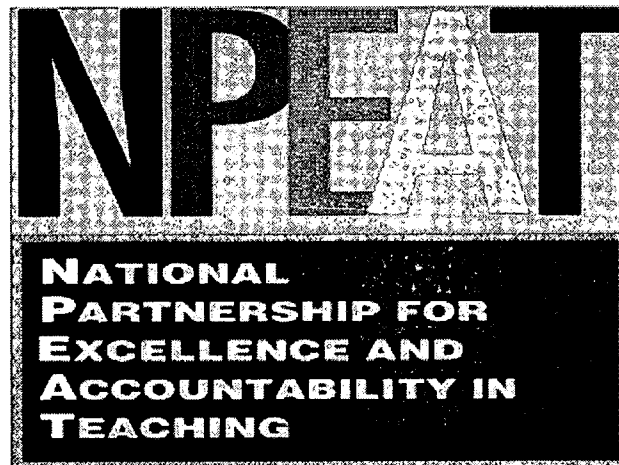
Appendix B

UNITE Case Study Sites

Cincinnati Professional Practice Schools Partnership¹
The Capitol Educators Partnership²
The New Jersey Network for Education Renewal³
The Albuquerque Public Schools/University of New Mexico
Pittsburgh School District Collaborative⁴

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- ¹ Involves the University of Cincinnati and Cincinnati Public Schools
- ² Involves George Washington University and District of Columbia Schools
- ³ Involves Montclair State and Newark Public Schools
- ⁴ Involves Pittsburgh Public Schools and the University of Pittsburgh



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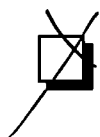


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